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Scott Fausti

South Dakota State University

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BIOGRAPHICAL ESSAYS OF THE
SECRETARIES OF THE TREASURY, 1824-1832

by

Scott Fausti¹

South Dakota State University

Economics Staff Paper 93-12

October 1993

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¹ All correspondence should be directed to Scott Fausti, Assistant Professor, Department of Economics, South Dakota State University, Scobey Hall, Box 504A, Brookings, South Dakota 57007-0895.

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ASBURY DICKINS (July 29, 1780 - October 21, 1861)

Asbury Dickins led a extremely interesting life. His contributions to society, however, never attracted the notice of American historians except as a minor player in the events that unfolded during his lifetime. Dickins spent most of his adult life working in Washington as a career civil servant, serving his country in one capacity or another for almost 45 years. His most prestigious appointments included Secretary of the Treasury *ad interim*, Secretary of State *ad interim*, and as Secretary of the Senate.

Asbury Dickins was born on July 29, 1780, in Halifax County, North Carolina, the oldest of five children. He was named after the founder of the American Methodist Church, Bishop Asbury. His father, John Dickins, was a prominent Methodist minister. His mother, Elizabeth (Yancey) Dickins, was from a prominent North Carolina family. After Asbury was born the family moved to New York and then to Philadelphia. In Philadelphia, John Dickins established the Methodist Book Concern. In September of 1798, a yellow fever epidemic swept Philadelphia, taking the life of Asbury's father and younger sister.

At the age of 18, Asbury took over his father's responsibilities as head of the family and proprietor of his father's book store. Under Asbury's guidance the bookstore took on a secular aspect and quickly became the center of literary life in Philadelphia. The literary circle soon formed itself into the Tuesday Club. At the center of this circle were Dickins and Joseph Dennie. Other probable members included Horace

Binney, Nicholas Biddle, Nathaniel Chapman, Thomas Cadwalader, John Ward Fenno, Charles Jared Ingersoll, Richard Rush, and Thomas I. Wharton (Nuermberger 1947, p.285).

During this period Dickins acquired a Federalist view and associated with the foremost literary figures of the Federalist period. On January 3, 1801, Dickins and Dennie published the first issue of *Port Folio* magazine. The *Port Folio*, a Federalist publication, is considered one of the most important magazines of its time (Mott 1938, p.227).

Dickins' success in the Philadelphia publishing and book trade was fleeting. His sloppy handling of the business accounts and a suit filed by Samuel Boldget on October 26, 1801, to redress a personal injury (unknown) caused Dickins to flee Philadelphia in November for England. His mother, through the aid of Thomas W. Armat, dissolved the business to pay off its creditors on July 25, 1805 (Parker 1970, pp. 480-83).

Little is known about how Dickins made his living during his first two years in London. On October 25, 1803, he eloped with Lillia Arnot. Lillia came from a prominent Scottish family and the marriage was opposed by the bride's family. The marriage was a happy one and produced nine children. Lillia's family background proved to be valuable asset in the Dickins family ascent in Washington society and Asbury's civil service career years later.

In 1807, Dickins entered public service with his appointment as Chancellor in the office of the U.S. Consul at London. He

lost his position when the War of 1812 began. In June of 1813, the Dickins family moved to Paris in the employment of Lord Cochrane. It was in Paris that Dickins met William H. Crawford, the U.S. minister to France and his future benefactor. In October of 1814, the family sailed for America and settled on a 300 acre farm located on the Washington to Baltimore turnpike. Dickins spent two unsuccessful years as a farmer.

In 1816, James Monroe won the U.S. presidential election, and he appointed William H. Crawford as his Secretary of the Treasury. Crawford appointed Dickins to the position of second clerk in the Treasury Department, and Dickins later became Crawford's confidential clerk, thus becoming established as a civil servant in Washington. The Dickins family thrived in Washington, gaining social prominence beyond his clerical rank and associating with the best of Washington society.

Dickins during his tenure in the Treasury Department supported the Second Bank of the United States and its president Nicholas Biddle, an acquaintance from his bookstore days. Dickins' advice and support was so highly regarded that the Bank forgave a \$2,500 debt in 1830 (Catterall 1903, p.254). Dickens continued to serve in the Adams administration under the new Secretary of the Treasury, Richard Rush, another acquaintance from his bookstore days. When Andrew Jackson won election in 1828, Dickens was appointed Chief Clerk of the Treasury, under Samuel D. Ingham. Many Democrats were upset with the appointment, but Dickins' reputation as a first rate

administrator and his political connections overcame his critics' objections (Munroe 1973, pp.302-303).

When the Eaton scandal caused the dissolution of Jackson's cabinet in the spring of 1831, Jackson appointed Dickins Secretary of the Treasury *ad interim*. Dickins served from June 21 to August 8. Ingham's replacement was another old acquaintance from the bookstore days, Louis McLane. McLane and Dickins formed a close working relationship built on their common backgrounds in religion and politics. Both men were raised as Methodists and began their careers as Federalists. They both were supporters of Crawford, and they had developed an earlier working relationship from the time when McLane was the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee and Dickins was Crawford's confidential clerk in the U.S. Treasury (Munroe 1973, p.303).

During McLane's tenure as Secretary of the Treasury, Jackson's war on the Second U.S. Bank began in earnest. Dickins acted as an intermediary between Biddle and McLane (Munroe 1973, pp. 308-309; and McGrane 1919, pp.128-131). McLane and Dickins worked for the rechartering of the Bank; however, Biddle's political miscalculation in forming an allegiance with Henry Clay undermined their attempts to persuade Jackson to recharter the Bank.

The Bank War nearly caused another cabinet crisis. The crisis was averted and McLane on June 1, 1833, was transferred to the Secretary of State cabinet post. McLane took Dickins with him to the State Department as chief clerk. In June of 1834,

McLane was succeeded by John Forsyth and Dickins remained as chief clerk. In May and June of 1835, and again in the summer and fall of 1836, Dickins was Secretary of State *ad interim*, due to Forsyth's ill health (Nuermberger 1947, p.300).

On December 12, 1836, Dickins resigned from the State Department to become Secretary of the United States Senate. Dickins continued in this post until July of 1861, when the senate voted him out of his office at the age of 81.

Lillia Dickins preceded her husband in death on April 10, 1859. Asbury Dickins died on October 21, 1861, of sudden heart failure at his home in Washington. His death occurred at the beginning of the Civil War, and little notice was given to the passing of one of the nation's oldest civil servants.

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SAMUEL DELUCENNA INGHAM (September 16, 1779 - June 5, 1860)

Samuel Delucenna Ingham was a prominent politician and successful entrepreneur from the state of Pennsylvania. His youngest son, William A. Ingham, described Samuel as a man of medium height, with broad shoulders and light blue eyes. His disposition was sober and distant, even toward his children (Ingham, W., 1917, p. 30).

Samuel Delucenna Ingham was born in the village of Great Springs near the town of New Hope in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, on September 16, 1779. He was the only son and the oldest of four children born into the family of Dr. Jonathan and Ann (Welding) Ingham, which had resided in Bucks County for four generations. Although the Inghams were Quakers, Jonathan had early on broken his ties with the "broad brim" sect. Jonathan was devoted to classical studies and presided over Samuel's early education, tutoring him in the classical tradition. The doctor, however, was a very busy man, and at the age of ten Samuel was sent to a private school (unknown) which taught in the classical tradition. Before Samuel reached his fourteenth birthday his father died from yellow fever, ending Samuel's formal education. Due to ensuing financial difficulty, his mother indentured Samuel to a paper maker (unknown) on Pennypacker Creek, 15 miles from Philadelphia. He remained in the service of the paper maker for five years. After fulfilling his contractual obligations he returned home to aid his mother in running the family farm.

In 1798 Samuel accepted the manager's position at a paper mill located near Bloomfield in eastern New Jersey. During his

employment at the mill Samuel met his future wife, Rebecca Dodd, whom he married in 1800 after attaining his twenty-first birthday. The couple returned home, and Samuel built a paper mill on the family property and settled down to raising a family and running the mill and family farm.

Samuel became involved in local politics and was elected to the Pennsylvania House of Representatives in 1806. He declined reelection in 1808 due to pressing business affairs. In the same year, Governor Thomas McKean appointed Samuel as Justice of the Peace in Bucks County. In 1812, he was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives as a Jeffersonian Democrat. During his tenure in the House he was a member of the Ways and Means Committee and chairman of the committee overseeing the U.S. Post Office. He served in the House until July 6, 1818, resigning due to his wife's deteriorating health. Upon his return home, he was appointed to office of Prothonotary of the Court of Common Pleas of Bucks County. In 1819, Samuel was appointed Secretary of the Commonwealth by Governor Findlay. Rebecca died in 1819, leaving Samuel to raise their five children. He spent the next two years at home, raising his children and tending to his business interests.

In 1822, Samuel married Deborah Kay Hall of Salem, New Jersey, they had three children. In October he was elected to the Seventeenth U.S. Congress. He was reappointed to the House Ways and Means Committee and to the chairmanship of the Post

Office Committee. Ingham remained in the House until March 4, 1829, resigning to join the cabinet of President Andrew Jackson.

During his tenure in the House, Ingham was a strong supporter of John C. Calhoun and Andrew Jackson. There is speculation that Ingham played a role in the scandal that arose after the 1824 presidential election. The "bargain and corruption cry" scandal arose over the selection of John Q. Adams as president by the House, even though Andrew Jackson received a majority of the popular vote. Henry Clay, the new Secretary of State, accused Ingham of being the author behind fellow Pennsylvania Congressman George Kremer's letter accusing Adams and Clay of conspiring to and succeeding in stealing the presidency from Andrew Jackson (Parton, 1861, Vol. III, p.106). Adding fuel to the fire, Ingham wrote an election pamphlet attacking Adams' character and accusing him of being a monarchist. Adams never forgave Ingham for those personal attacks (Ingham, W., 1917, p.26).

In 1828 Andrew Jackson won the presidential election, and Ingham, a staunch supporter of Jackson and Vice President elect Calhoun, was offered the portfolio of the U.S. Treasury. Ingham served as Secretary of the Treasury for two years. During his tenure as Secretary, Ingham addressed three major economic issues: 1) the Second U.S. Bank; 2) elimination of the federal debt; and 3) U.S. commercial policy.

Andrew Jackson had made a campaign pledge to eliminate the public debt. Ingham, with the cooperation of Nicholas Biddle,

president of the Second U.S. Bank, orchestrated a large payment toward the debt in the early summer of 1829 as a first step in fulfillment of Jackson's pledge. The transaction was handled by the Bank and earned the praise of Ingham in a letter to Biddle dated June 19: "...I cannot close this communication without expressing the satisfaction of the department at the arrangements which the bank has made for effecting these payments in a manner so accommodating to the Treasury, and so little embarrassing to the community" (Parton, 1861, Vol. III, p.260).

The relationship, however, soured over the Portsmouth affair. In October, after several communications between Biddle and Ingham concerning the actions of the president of the Bank's Portsmouth branch, Ingham referred to Biddle as being "altogether too touchy", and stated that the administration had the power to withdraw public funds if the administration deemed it necessary (Parton, 1861, Vol. III, pp. 266-267). This implied threat was not carried out during Ingham's watch, but the relationship between the Treasury and the Bank remained strained. The public debt issue would also remained unresolved at the end of Ingham's tenure as Secretary.

During this period in history, administration of U.S. commercial policy was the responsibility of the Treasury. During his tenure as Secretary, Ingham advocated in his annual reports to Congress for a reduction in import tariffs and in taxes, in general. He viewed all taxes as a necessary evil to pay off a greater economic evil, the public debt. He believed that the

public debt and high taxes needed to pay off that debt led to a misallocation of resources and lessened American manufacturers' ability to compete with foreign producers (Ingham, S., 1829, pp. 9-17). Ingham was also concerned with smuggling and recommended changes in custom house regulations and duty application procedures. He pointed to the amount of smuggling occurring under the present system as proof of the system's inefficiency and need for reform (Ingham, S., 1830, pp.90-95).

Ingham's son, William, wrote that his father was an ardent protectionist and had made numerous public statements in favor of tariffs (Ingham, W., 1917, p.29). There is no written evidence of Ingham expounding this view during his tenure as Secretary. To the contrary, Ingham argued for reductions in the tariff as Secretary of the Treasury..."Whatever the objects may, in the wisdom of the Government, be found, for the application of surplus revenue, after the public debt be paid, there will probably remain a considerable amount, which may be dispensed with, by a reduction of the import duties, without prejudice to any branch of domestic industry..." (Ingham, S., 1829, p.17). It is clear from his official statement to Congress that Ingham believed U.S tariff rates were excessive.

Ingham's favored place in the Jackson cabinet was abruptly terminated by his actions toward John Eaton and the role of Ingham's wife Deborah in what has become known as the Margaret Eaton scandal. Margaret Eaton was the wife of John Eaton, Jackson's Secretary of War, fellow Tennessean, and lifelong

friend. Jackson was also a friend of Mrs. Eaton's family. It was the second marriage for both parties. Washington's social elite, which included cabinet family members, refused to recognize Mrs. Eaton socially. The snubbing of Mrs. Eaton infuriated President Jackson. It reminded Jackson of the pain and humiliation false rumors had inflicted upon his own dearly loved departed wife, Elizabeth, during his term in Congress. Jackson went so far as to have his personal aide, Major William Lewis, investigate all of the rumors. Major Lewis found no proof to verify any of the scandalous gossip (Parton, 1861, Vol.III pp.184-205). Jackson then demanded that his cabinet members and their families welcome Mrs. Eaton into their social circle. The cabinet members refused, except Secretary of State Martin Van Buren. Jackson came to believe that the ringleaders of the social boycott of Mrs. Eaton were Mrs. Ingham and Mrs. Calhoun. Jackson concluded that their husbands' refusal to put an end to snubbing was motivated by a political scheme, with the sole purpose of driving Major Eaton from the Cabinet (Munroe, 1973, p. 295). Events surrounding the scandal left the Cabinet paralyzed, forcing Jackson to dissolve the Cabinet in the spring of 1831. Ingham resigned on April 19, 1831. The correspondence between Jackson and Ingham reveals that they parted on good terms. However, Ingham refuted Jackson's version of the cabinet dissolution publicly in May and hinted that it was due solely to his family's refusal to accept Mrs. Eaton socially. In June, a story appeared in the United States Telegraph, blaming the

dissolution of the Cabinet on Mrs. Eaton and Jackson's desire to regulate the private lives of his cabinet officers (McCrary, 1976, pp. 232-234). These events enraged Major Eaton and drove the final nail in Ingham's political coffin. Eaton challenged Ingham to a duel over the article, Ingham refused. Ingham packed up his family and left Washington for Baltimore June 22, 1831, thus ending his political career (Parton, 1861, Vol. III, pp. 364-368).

The Ingham family returned to New Hope, Pennsylvania, and Ingham re-devoted himself to business. He helped develop the anthracite coal fields in Pennsylvania and was one of the founding members and for a time president of the Beaver Meadow Railroad Company. Later, he helped organize the Hazelton Coal Co. and through his coal interests became involved in the political issues surrounding the construction of the Lehigh Navigation and Delaware Division canals. As a private citizen, Ingham spent considerable energy lobbying the state legislature for improvement of Pennsylvania's inland waterways to benefit Pennsylvania's coal industry (Ingham, W., 1917, p.29). In 1849 Samuel Ingham moved the family to Trenton, New Jersey, and became involved in the Trenton Mechanics Bank. On June 5, 1860, Samuel D. Ingham died at his home in Trenton. He was buried in the cemetery of the Thompson Memorial Church located at Great Springs, Pennsylvania. He was survived by his wife Deborah and five of his eight children.

Samuel D. Ingham lived during a turbulent period in American history. His contributions to the new nation and the state of Pennsylvania were significant. Yet, because he lived in the age of Monroe, Jackson, and Adams, Ingham's shadow pales. His involvement in scandalous events adds no lustre to his legacy. Concerned with his reputation, Ingham burned his entire collection of correspondence in 1849 in the fear that those letters would tarnish his reputation if published after his death (Ingham, W., 1917, p.29). The destruction of Ingham's confidential correspondence is regrettable from a historical point of view and leaves several questions about his character unanswered.

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Samuel Lewis Southard (June 9, 1787 - June 26, 1842)

Samuel Lewis Southard was a first rate jurist, teacher, and public servant who gained the esteem and loyalty of his fellow statesmen and the people of New Jersey. In a one-year period Southard held the offices of New Jersey Governor, Attorney General, and United States Senator. This impressive demonstration of confidence in Southard by the people of New Jersey earned him the title of New Jersey's "favorite son" (Shaw, 1884).

Southard served two U.S. Presidents, Monroe and Adams. He was appointed Secretary of the Navy by President Monroe on September 16, 1823, and continued in that capacity in the Adams administration. During his tenure under Adams he was assigned the duties of Secretary of the Treasury, ad interim until Richard Rush returned from England (March 7 to July 31, 1825). On May 26, 1828, President Adams appointed him Secretary of War, ad interim. He held the post until June 19, 1828. Southard ended his political career in the U.S. Senate (1833-1842) and was elected President of the Senate on March 11, 1841 and resigned May 3, 1842, because of ill health. Samuel Lewis Southard died on June 26, 1842.

Samuel Lewis Southard was born at Basking Ridge in Somerset County, New Jersey on June 9, 1787, one of thirteen children born into the family of the Honorable Henry and Mrs. Sarah (Lewis) Southard. He was raised in a prosperous and loving home. His father instilled the value of hard work and integrity in Samuel. With only a common English education, Samuel's father had become

a successful farmer and politician, serving a total of 21 years in the U.S. House of Representatives as a member of the New Jersey delegation (Mellick, 1913).

Henry, understanding the value of a good education, enrolled Samuel at the age of 12 in Reverend Robert Finely's Classical Academy in Basking Ridge. Reverend Finely had a national reputation as a minister and educator and remained a friend of the Southard family his entire life. Samuel was considered to be a moral and amiable youth, beloved by his classmates (Elmer, 1872). In September of 1802 he entered the junior class of the College of New Jersey, now called Princeton University. At the age of 17 Southard graduated with honors from the College of New Jersey and accepted a teaching position at a classical school in Mendham, N.J.

In 1805, Southard travelled to Washington, D.C., where his father was a member of the House. Henry Southard had become intimate friends with Colonel John Taliaferro, a fellow member of the House from Virginia. Colonel Taliaferro was a wealthy plantation owner, and it was the custom of the day for wealthy southerners to hire Princeton graduates as private tutors to educate their children. Upon young Southard's arrival in Washington he was offered the position as tutor for the Taliaferro family. Southard, following his father's advice, accepted the position and in the fall of 1805 commenced his residence at Hagely, the ancestral home of the Taliaferro family in King George's County, Va., a few miles from Fredericksburg.

Southard lived at Hagely for five years. His tutorial duties involved education in the classical tradition of the Colonel's two sons and six other pupils who were relatives of the family. The five years at Hagely had a remarkable influence on young Southard and set him on the path that would lead to a remarkable career. Southard was treated as a part of the Taliaferro family, and he was introduced to the society of Virginia's cultured men and women, which allowed Southard to refine his intellect and etiquette. He met the great Virginian statesmen of the period, including Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and James Monroe who was a cousin of the Colonel. Monroe become fond of Southard, and Southard made regular visits to Monroe's home in London County, Va. Southard was encouraged to study law. Under the guidance of Judge Green of Fredericksburg, Southard was admitted to the Virginia Bar in 1809.

Southard's residence at Hagely endeared him to the Taliaferro family, as the following letter excerpts from his former pupils clearly indicate. First, Major Lawrence Taliaferro states, "Southard was treated as a friend and brother; we loved him." Another pupil, James Monroe Taliaferro writes, "It is impossible for me to do justice to one of the best men I have ever met. Pure, gentle, affectionate, and talented, he needed no association to aid him, for his own virtues shone above generality of men with exceeding brilliancy, and won for him a name and respect that is still green and flourishing in the

memory of all who had the pleasure of his acquaintance. He was our guide, example, and teacher, and I shall never forget him; and who could, with a heart to appreciate such noble traits as he possessed?" (Elmer 1872, p.205). Southard also met his future wife at Hagely, Miss Rebecca Harrow, the ward of Colonel Taliaferro. Miss Harrow was the daughter of a deceased minister of the Episcopal church; after her father's death, she went to live with the Taliaferro family.

Southard left Hagely in 1811 and returned to New Jersey. In the same year, he was granted his license to practice law by the New Jersey Supreme Court. He settled in Flemmington, the county seat of Hunterdon County. He built a house in Flemmington and married Miss Harrow at Hagely in June of 1812. In 1812 he was appointed "prosecutor of the pleas" for Hunterdon County. In 1814 Southard was appointed law reporter of the New Jersey Supreme Court by the state legislature. In January of 1815, Southard first attracted statewide attention by delivering a speech before the Assembly expressing his opposition to a petition presented by Robert Livingston and Robert Fulton to repeal a law passed by the New Jersey legislature in 1813 granting Aaron Ogden and Daniel Dod the exclusive privilege, in the waters of New Jersey, of using steamboats running between New Jersey and New York. In spite of Southard's efforts, the 1813 law was repealed. However, his speech against the petition was highly praised in the New Jersey press, and this notoriety launched his political career. In the next election in Hunterdon

County, Southard was elected to the State Assembly. A short time after taking his seat in the Assembly, he was appointed Associate Justice of the New Jersey Supreme Court to replace Mahlon Dickerson who was elected Governor.

Shortly after his appointment, Southard moved his family to Trenton. In November of 1817, Southard was one of the candidates for the post of Attorney General, he lost by one vote. Just before Southard left the court in 1820, he and Charles Ewing published a revision of the statutes of the state, New Jersey Reports 4-5. After leaving the court in 1820, he was appointed city recorder in Trenton. In the fall of that year, Southard was selected as a presidential elector by the New Jersey Assembly and cast his vote for his dear friend James Monroe for a second term as President.

In November of 1820, Southard was appointed to the U.S. Senate by the New Jersey General Assembly to succeed James J. Wilson who had fallen out of favor with the Assembly. Wilson, incensed by the Assembly's action, resigned his seat before his term expired; and Southard took his seat in the U.S. Senate on February 16, 1821. A week later, Southard and his father, a member of the House, were selected as members of the committee to settle the question of admitting Missouri as a state.

A version of the political negotiations behind the settlement is given by Elmer (1872). Elmer suggests that it was Southard who drafted the resolutions which resolved the Missouri statehood controversy being debated in Congress in February of

1821. According to Elmer, on the morning of the day Southard was to present his proposed resolutions to resolve the Missouri question to the Senate, he was summoned to a meeting with Henry Clay, the Speaker of the House. Clay persuaded Southard to allow him to introduce the resolutions, and Southard deferred to the elder statesman. Elmer uses the following statement from Reminiscences of James A. Hamilton as a basis for his conclusion concerning the outcome of the meeting between Southard and Clay: "...Mr. Clay took the resolutions, and without change in any respect, offered the resolutions in the house. They were carried in both houses. The question was settled, the agitation ceased. Mr. Clay has had from that time the whole merit of that measure. He never has given to Mr. Southard the credit of any part" (Elmer, 1872, pp.213-214).

In August of 1823, President Monroe asked Southard to join his cabinet as Secretary of the Navy to replace Smith Thompson, who was appointed to the Supreme Court of the United States. Southard expressed uncertainty over the appointment as expressed in a letter to Elmer, dated August 23, 1823: "My dear Sir; Mr. Monroe has requested me to accept the secretaryship of the Navy. I see many difficulties before me in doing it. May I beg you as a personal friend, to tell me what is best..." (Elmer, 1872, p.217). Southard accepted the cabinet post in September of that year and was reappointed by President Adams over the objections of Henry Clay, Adams' Secretary of State. The perceived back-room political deal to rob Jackson of the White House in the 1824

election by Clay and Adams made political life uncomfortable for Southard, but he continued to believe in and work for the Adams administration. Adams appointed Southard Secretary of the Treasury, ad interim on March 7, 1824, until the arrival in July of Richard Rush returning from his ambassadorship in England. Adams also appointed Southard Secretary of War, ad interim on May 26, 1828; he held the post until June 19, when Peter B. Porter was sworn in.

Southard proved to be a valuable member of the cabinet and performed his duties as Secretary of the Navy with great skill, enabling him to gain the respect of the naval officers he commanded. Southard made several foresighted recommendations to improve the quality of the Navy: 1) to establish a naval academy; 2) to thoroughly chart the U.S. coastline; 3) to institute a naval criminal code; 4) to establish a higher naval officer rank than captain; 5) to reorganize and increase the Marine Corps; 6) to establish regular communication across Panama; and 7) to build naval hospitals. The construction of the first naval hospital in 1828 was the only recommendation to be enacted during his tenure. Under Southard, the Navy increased from 35 ships to 52 and personnel increased from 3,400 to 5,600. The annual naval budget increased from about \$2,000,000 to \$3,000,000.

Jackson's victory in the 1828 presidential election over Adams was a blow to Southard, and he decided to return to private life in Trenton. In March of 1829 he was appointed Attorney General of New Jersey to fill the post vacated by Theodore

Frelinghuysen who was elected to the U.S. Senate by the General Assembly of New Jersey. Southard's political fortunes began to rise with the fortunes of his political party, the Whigs. In 1832, the Whigs won a majority of the seats in the New Jersey General Assembly and Southard was elected Governor, however, he held the office for only three months. Political ambition had once again captured his spirit, and he persuaded his party to elect him to the U.S. Senate. This political maneuver cost his party the majority in the next state election.

Southard returned to the Senate on December 3, 1833, at another critical point in U.S. history. The political war over the Second Bank of the United States was reaching its climax, and Southard made two speeches on the floor of the Senate opposing the action of the Secretary of the Treasury in removing federal deposits from the Bank (Congressional Globe, 23 Cong., 1st session., Jan 9 and 11, 1834, pp.87-88, 90-91.). Southard argued that the removal of federal deposits was not the constitutional right of the executive branch and violated the Bank's charter which was enacted by an act of Congress. On March 28, 1834, Southard voted with the majority of the Senate to censure President Jackson for his actions against the Bank.

In 1838, Southard was re-elected to the Senate. On March 11, 1841, Southard was elected President of the Senate "Pro Tempore" due to the untimely death of the President of the United States, William H. Harrison. Harrison's death moved Vice President John Taylor into the White House, and Southard was

elected to replace him. Southard remained Vice President until May 3, 1842, resigning because of ill health. On June 26, 1842, Southard died in Fredericksburg, Va, at the home of his brother-in-law (National Intelligencer, June 28, 1842).

Southard served the people of New Jersey with distinction, and for this service he was rewarded with a remarkable career. His reputation also brought him honors outside the political arena. Southard was appointed a trustee of the College of New Jersey in 1822, and in 1833 he received an LL.D. degree from the University of Pennsylvania. In 1838, Southard was appointed president of the Morris Canal and Banking Co., and from that time he and his family resided in Jersey City.

The esteem held for Southard by his friends and colleagues can best be expressed in a statement given before the U.S. Senate by Mr. King of Alabama, who succeeded Southard as President of the Senate and who was not a member of his party: "It has been my fortune for many years to be intimately acquainted with the distinguished man whose death has been just announced. I have known him in private life, and can bear testimony to his kindness of heart, amiableness of disposition, and uniform courtesy. I have known him in public stations, and can with the same truthfulness testify to his courtesy, and ability with which he discharged the various trusts confided to his care" (Elmer, 1872, p.233).

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Louis McLane (May 28, 1784 - Oct 7, 1857)

Louis McLane was a lawyer, statesman, diplomat, and businessman and was considered first among men in each of these pursuits by his peers. His career was multifaceted and shaped by his politics; a staunch federalist from Delaware, he remained true to his federalist principles long after his party collapsed. His hot temper and pride along with his inability to let go of a grudge, may very well have cost him his chance to ascend to the U.S. Presidency or the U.S. Supreme Court, two positions he coveted. During his tenure in the Jackson cabinet, he became estranged from Martin Van Buren who was once a close friend. This falling out played a leading role in ending his chances of reaching his political goals.

Louis McLane was born on May 28, 1784, in the town of Duck Creek Cross Roads, New Jersey (renamed Smyrna in 1806), the son of a Revolutionary War hero, Allen McLane and his wife Rebecca (Wells) McLane. Louis' birth date is often given incorrectly in reference sources, and this error may be due to being the second son to bear that name (Munroe 1973, p.22). His parents endured great hardship; of 14 children, only three, Louis, Rebecca, and Allen, survived to adulthood. On February 27, 1797, President Washington appointed Allen McLane Collector of Customs in Wilmington, Delaware, and the family moved to Wilmington that spring.

Louis McLane's father was of Scottish decent. Allen McLane was born in Philadelphia on August 8, 1746. He was an ardent federalist and a prominent member of the party in Delaware. As a

partisan captain in General Washington's army, he became a war hero. Allen had great influence on Louis, instilling a fighting spirit and physical resilience into the boy, which prepared him for the rigors of private and political life in Jacksonian America. His parents were Methodist, and his mother's strong religious beliefs did little to temper Allen's influence on his son. The combination of federalism, Methodist, and a war-hero father provided the catalyst to propel Louis into the forefront of Delaware politics and lifted him to national prominence.

Louis' early education in Smyrna is unclear. His father enrolled him in the Friends school in Wilmington in 1797. On May 3, 1799, at the age of 15, he was given a midshipman appointment on the frigate *Philadelphia*, under the command of Stephen Decatur, father of a future American war hero of the same name. The *Philadelphia* was posted to the Guadeloupe station in the Lesser Antilles to protect American shipping during the war scare generated over the French (XYZ) affair. The *Philadelphia* returned home in April 1801 after a successful tour. McLane was then furloughed because of ill health. His furlough was extended, and he resigned on January 16, 1802.

After leaving the Navy, Louis entered Newark Academy (now the University of Delaware) in 1802. He left the Academy in 1804 to become a clerk in the law office of a close friend of his father, James A. Bayard. Louis remained with Bayard until after he was admitted to the New Castle Bar in December 1807.

Louis spent the next ten years as a young lawyer in Wilmington. He had a natural gift as a public speaker and gained a reputation as a very competent lawyer. These qualities would allow Louis to reach an eminent rank at the bar in his native state.

On December 29, 1812, Louis married Catherine Mary Milligan, the eldest daughter of Robert and Sally (Jones) Milligan. Catherine was a prize, her family was politically and socially connected, she was well educated, and her family was wealthy. She proved to be an effective advocate of her husband in Washington society and a confidant that could temper Louis' emotional responses to events outside his control. Louis and his wife were extremely close. Of 13 children, only one died in infancy.

In the Congressional elections of 1816, young McLane was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives and served ten years. His first years in Washington were clouded by financial difficulties due to investments in Delaware that went bad. Financial pressures precluded Louis from bringing his family to Washington immediately, and the distance from his family had a negative effect on his disposition (Munroe 1973, pp. 66-78). In fact, Catherine would spend the winter in Wilmington for seven of the 12 years McLane served in Congress.

Louis McLane was a strong supporter of the Second Bank of the United States during his years in the House. In 1818, he played a pivotal role in the rejection of a House resolution to

investigate the daily operations of the Bank, successfully arguing before the House that the Congress possessed no power to interfere with the daily operations of the Bank (Munroe 1973, pp.83-90).

In 1820, McLane on the issue of allowing Missouri to enter the Union, voted for entry, against instructions from the Delaware Legislature. He based his decision on federalist principles, that he was an officer of the Union and not the agent of the state (Munroe 1973, pp.102-105). In 1822, McLane was elected chairman of the powerful Ways and Means Committee. He continued as chairman until he was elected to the U.S. Senate by the Delaware Legislature in the fall of 1826.

McLane's tenure in the House made him a politician of national reputation. He was a champion of the Bank and he believed in tariff protection for American industry. He was an advocate for investing in America's infrastructure (Munroe 1973, p.146). His pet project during his tenure was the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal (Munroe 1973, p.147). He was a staunch supporter of William Crawford and Andrew Jackson, supporting both men for the U.S. Presidency.

Upon Andrew Jackson's election to the Presidency in 1828, McLane was selected to fill the post of Minister of the United States to the Court of St. James (England). McLane spent two years in England and won the praise of Jackson and the American public by negotiating the West Indies Trade Treaty, which had long been a source of conflict between the two nations. When

Jackson's first cabinet dissolved over the Mrs. Eaton scandal, Jackson recalled McLane to fill the Secretary of the Treasury post vacated by Samuel D. Ingham. McLane took control of the Treasury portfolio on August 6, 1831.

McLane saw his new position as an avenue to further his federalist beliefs and to ascend in the political hierarchy. His agenda included: 1) the Bank's rechartering; and 2) a new tariff bill, to protect domestic industry. He merged his agenda with the president's top economic goals: 3) the selling of public lands to the states; and 4) the elimination of all government debt by end of 1832. The elimination of government debt was of the highest priority for Jackson.

McLane released his Treasury report on December 6, 1831, generating a great stir in Washington. He presented a plan to use the Bank and the government's stock holdings in the Bank to eliminate the debt by March 3, 1833. The plan would allow Jackson to keep his 1828 campaign pledge and would also put the Bank in a very favorable political position. The debt elimination plan was controversial, however, it allowed McLane to make a case for the rechartering of the Bank (McLane 1831).

Behind the scene, McLane convinced Jackson that, with modification, renewing the Bank's charter after the 1832 election was in the best interest of the country. Jackson confirms this in a letter to James A. Hamilton dated December 12, 1831: "Mr. McLane and myself understand each other, and have not the slightest disagreement about principles, which will be a *sine qua*

non in my assent to a bill recharting the Bank." (Hamilton 1869, p.234). McLane also discussed the issue with Nicholas Biddle, president of the Bank, during a meeting in Philadelphia on October 19, 1831. McLane warned Biddle that renewal of the Bank's charter must come after the election or Jackson would consider the move as a political attack and veto the bill.

Biddle's recollection of this meeting clearly shows this. "If therefore while he is so confident of reelection, this question is put on him as one affecting his reelection, he might be disposed to put his veto on it." (McGrane 1919, pp.128-131). Never the less, in December Biddle was leaning to recharter immediately, as recommended by Henry Clay and other enemies of Jackson. McLane again warned Biddle through a mutual friend, Thomas Cadwalader. "If you apply now, you assuredly will fail-if you wait, you will as certainly succeed." (McGrane 1919, pp.150-151). Biddle failed to heed McLane's advice and pressed for renewal in January 1832, and the rest is history.

On the tariff issue, McLane joined forces with his old nemesis John Q. Adams. Adams was chairman of the House Committee on Manufactures. The House on January 16, 1832, passed Adams' resolution to empower McLane to do two things: 1) collect information on the condition of American manufacturing, and 2) construct a new tariff bill (Munroe 1973, p.342). The tariff bill was presented by McLane to Congress in May and was based on information drawn from his Report on Manufactures. McLane drafted a bill acceptable to the South. Congress revised the

bill, making it offensive to the South, and then passed it in June. The passage of the Adams' tariff bill spawned the Nullification Crisis.

McLane's most important contribution to the field of Economics is his Report on Manufactures, one of the most valuable sources of information on early American industry. The report is a collection of individual returns from manufactures. It contains information on the microeconomic life of industry during that period. McLane recognized the value of the information and expressed this view in a letter to the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee in the House: "These returns contain a body of the most useful, valuable, and extensive information of the manufactures of the United States...ever...presented to Congress..." (Munroe 1973, p.344).

In May of 1833, Jackson again reorganized his cabinet. Edward Livingston, Secretary of State, was made Minister to France to settle the French Spoilage question. McLane was given the post of Secretary of State, and William J. Duane joined the cabinet as the new Secretary of the Treasury.

On June 26, 1833, Jackson sent Duane instructions on how he planned to have federal deposits removed from the Bank. Duane resisted Jackson's plan, and Jackson asked Duane to resign on September 23, 1833 (Parton 1861, Vol III, pp.508-531). McLane argued during that period against Jackson's plan; when Duane resigned, McLane and Lewis Cass, the Secretary of War, both offered their resignations.

Martin Van Buren, Vice President, interceded to stop the second dissolution of the President's cabinet. Rebecca McLane is given the credit by Van Buren for being the "voice of reason" persuading Louis to remain in the cabinet (Munroe 1973, p.410).

With the cabinet crisis resolved, and the Bank issue a lost cause, McLane focused his attention on the French Spoilage issue and his plan for the restructuring of the State Department, this restructuring was his most important contribution as Secretary of State.

When McLane assumed the duties of Secretary, the Department had no formal structure. McLane submitted a formal memorandum to President Jackson on August 29, 1833, containing a proposed set of guidelines for daily operations in the State Department. Jackson approved and the regulations were made effective (McCormac 1928, p.279).

The French Spoilage issue was the last straw for McLane. The French refused to honor the indemnity treaty negotiated by William C. Rives in July 1831. McLane argued for strong action against the French, Letters of Marque, which would allow American raids upon French commercial shipping. Jackson was at first in favor but changed his mind after hearing the arguments in favor of prudence by Van Buren. McLane's pride could not bear being overruled on matters of State, and he resigned on June 18, 1834 (McCormac 1928, pp.281-289).

Seventeen years of public life ended when McLane loaded his family and possessions on a Potomac steamboat for the trip to

Baltimore and then home to Wilmington (National Intelligencer July, 22 1834). McLane settled into private life, trying to decide what direction his life should go. In May of 1835 he accepted the presidency of the Morris Canal and Banking Company. The company had a history of poor management and was scandal-ridden. McLane brought respectability to the company, and his management skills honed by his years in government service allowed the company to expand its operations and to pay its first dividend on July 14, 1836, after ten years of existence (Munroe 1973, pp.447-452).

McLane's success in turning around the Morris Canal and Banking Co., brought an offer to become president of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad in December 1836. The board of directors of the Morris Canal and Banking Co. tried to persuade McLane to stay but on June 15, 1837, they accepted his resignation and gave McLane a bonus of \$9,312.95 in compensation for his outstanding leadership. The bonus was more than twice his annual salary.

In July of 1837, McLane and his family arrived in Baltimore. McLane called the Baltimore and Ohio "a wreck" (Hungerford 1928, p.190). McLane's first report as president in October 1837 showed a loss of more than \$20,000.00 (Hungerford 1928, p.191). By the next year the railroad showed a profit of more than \$7,000.00 (Hungerford 1928, p.192). The feat was accomplished by cutting expenses. The railroad doubled the length of its roadbed, reaching Cumberland, Va., by the time McLane retired on

September 13, 1848. During his tenure as president of the railroad he was commissioned by U.S. President Polk in June 1845 to undertake a diplomatic mission to England to settle the Oregon boundary dispute. In April 1846, the treaty was signed, setting the 49th parallel as the permanent border between the United States and England.

After McLane retired, he and his family remained in Baltimore. His beloved wife died on July 31, 1849, and this caused him much grief. He recovered and became active in Maryland politics. He attend the Maryland Constitutional Convention in 1850-51 as a delegate from Baltimore. His health slowly began to deteriorate after the convention, and he died in Baltimore on October 7, 1857, with seven of his children at his side (Munroe 1973, pp.578-599).

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Richard Rush (August 29, 1780 - July 30, 1859)

Richard Rush was a prominent and respected man of his time. He served six United State Presidents in a number of different capacities, which included three different cabinet posts: 1) Attorney General 1814-1817; 2) Secretary of State, ad interim 1817; and 3) Secretary of the Treasury 1825-1828. Historians on both sides of the Atlantic have praised Rush's contributions to the new nation.

A public notice published at Rush's death expresses the depth of the American public's admiration for Rush: "He was a diplomatist and statesman, a jurist, a scholar, and a writer; and he was of first class in every one of these pursuits. The country will sincerely regret the death of one whose name carries the reader back to Jefferson's time, and who was associated with the generation of great men, all of whom have passed away, and whom he has gone to join, after a long, pure, and useful life, in a course of which he wronged no one; but bore himself as if conscious that he was responsible for the proper discharge of talents intrusted to him. His name will have a high place in American history, and will figure there with equal honor, whether the historian shall write of our politics or our literature." (NCAB 1967, pp.80-81).

Richard Rush was born in Philadelphia on August 29, 1780, second son and third child of Dr. Benjamin and Mrs. Julia (Stockton) Rush. Rush was raised in a cultured home. Benjamin Rush was a physician, educator, statesman, Revolutionary patriot

and one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence.

Benjamin Rush greatly influenced his son.

Richard's early education was administered first by his father and then by private preparatory schools. In 1794, Rush, at the age of 14 entered the College of New Jersey, (now called Princeton). He graduated the youngest in a class of 33 students in 1797. During his college years, he showed remarkable ability in the area of debate and oratorical exercises.

After college, Rush decided to pursue a career in law. He accepted a position in the office of William Lewis, Esq., one of the leaders of the Philadelphia Bar Association. He was admitted to the Philadelphia bar in December 1800. Rush's law practice was unspectacular, and prominence eluded him until 1808, when he defended Col. William Duane, editor of the publication Aurora, on the charge of libel against the Governor of Pennsylvania, Thomas McKean. Rush's successful defense of Duane vastly improved Rush's reputation as a lawyer. Consequently, his law practice expanded rapidly.

In 1809, on his twenty-ninth birthday, Rush married Catherine E. Murray, daughter of Dr. James and Mrs. Sarah E. Murray of Piney Grove, Pennsylvania. They had ten children of which three died during childhood. In 1810, the Republican Party of Pennsylvania selected Rush as a possible candidate for the upcoming congressional election, but he declined and then became the solicitor of the Guardians of the Poor of Philadelphia. In

January of 1811, the Governor of Pennsylvania appointed Rush to the post of Attorney General.

As a Republican, Rush opposed the renewal of the First Bank of the United States' charter. The Bank's request for the renewal of its charter by Congress was a controversial issue in 1811. Rush's stand against the Bank attracted President Madison's attention and he was subsequently appointed to the position of Comptroller of the Treasury in November of 1811. Rush's acceptance of this position distressed his father greatly; Benjamin Rush's feelings on this matter are clearly expressed in the following passage from his diary dated November 23, 1811, "This day it was announced in the 'National Intelligencer' that my son Richard Rush was appointed Comptroller of the United States, and to my great astonishment and distress on November 25th he set off for Washington to accept it. I dissuaded him from doing so from the following consideration: First, the degradation to which such an office exposed a man of literary and professional talents. It was an office that could be filled by any clerk of a bank. Second, the vexations and poverty of political life. Third, his comfortable establishment and excellent prospects in Pennsylvania, the State of his ancestors and family. Fourth, the sickliness of Washington and the insufficiency of the salary to support a growing family. Fifth, the dishonor which he would do to his understanding by such an act. Sixth, my age, also my young family, which required his advice now and would still more require it after my death. I

offered to implore him not to accept the appointment upon my knees, but all, all to no purpose. Oh, my son, my son Richard, may you never be made to feel in the unkindness of a son the misery you have inflicted upon me by this rash conduct." (A. Biddle 1905, p.211). Dr. Rush died on April 19, 1813; he would never know that this position that he opposed was just the first step in his son's distinguished political career.

On February 10, 1814, President Madison appointed Rush to replace William Pinkney as Attorney General of the United States. During his tenure as Attorney General, Rush made his first important contribution to the new nation; he superintended the publication of The Laws of the United States from 1789 to 1815 (1815), the first codification of the laws of the United States. Rush continued as Attorney General in the Monroe cabinet until President Monroe appointed him as Secretary of State, ad interim, until the return of John Quincy Adams from England. During his secretaryship, Rush proved his diplomatic skills in negotiations with the British Minister to the United States, Charles Bagot. The outcome of the negotiations was the Rush-Bagot Convention of 1817. The Anglo-American diplomatic agreement was the first instance of reciprocal naval disarmament in the history of international relations. It established a limitation of naval armaments on the Great Lakes. Because he was so impressed with Rush's diplomatic skills, President Monroe appointed Rush to the post of Minister Plenipotentiary to the Court of St. James (England) to replace Adams.

Richard Rush served as America's Minister to London until 1825. His appointment to this position had a profound and positive influence on American-British relations that prior to Rush's appointment was one of great mistrust between the two nations. Although the signing of the Treaty of Ghent (1815) had ended the War of 1812, the issues which drove the two nations into war, however, were for the most part left unsettled. Rush's predecessor, John Q. Adams, was bitter and hostile towards the British; he thoroughly mistrusted them. Rush, unlike Adams, moved with ease in British society and was anxious to establish good relations with England. Rush's attitude towards the English allowed him to develop a congenial relationship with Lord Castlereagh, the British Foreign Minister and with Castlereagh's successor George Canning. Rush's ability to develop a cordial relationship with the British Foreign Minister allowed him to resolve most of the issues left unsettled by the Treaty of Ghent. In October of 1818, Rush negotiated the Convention of 1818, which ended the border dispute between the United States and Canada. The agreement declared the 49th parallel as the northern boundary of the Louisiana Territory between the Lake of the Woods and the Rockies and agreed to the joint control of the Oregon Territory for a 10 year period. The other important issues resolved through negotiations by Rush included: 1) the dispute over American fishing rights in the Labrador and Newfoundland fisheries; and 2) the disagreement concerning England's liability with regards to American monetary losses incurred from the

British act of setting American slaves free during the War of 1812.

Andrew Jackson's invasion of Spanish Florida in 1818 and his decision to execute two British citizens, Arbuthnot and Ambrister, created an international incident that provided the next test of Rush's diplomatic skills. The executions outraged the British public and press. Talk of war grew in the British press. Rush handled the incident with consummate skill. Rush, in his Memoranda of a Residence at the Court of London, recalls a conversation with the British Foreign Minister, who comments on the seriousness of the incident: "Lord Castlereagh said that he believed 'war might have been produced by holding up a finger'." (Rush 1833, p.120)

The diplomatic preliminaries leading up to the Monroe Doctrine constituted Rush's final contribution to American foreign policy during his ministership. Rush's conversations with the new British Foreign Minister, George Canning, and his subsequent dispatches (Aug-Sept 1823) to Adams and Monroe on those meetings, convinced Monroe to deliver the speech which was later to become known as the Monroe Doctrine.

Rush left his post as Minister to London in 1825, to accept a cabinet post in the Adams administration as Secretary of the Treasury. Rush's contributions to American foreign policy and American-British relations were impressive. Rush, however, added to this remarkable contribution by writing Memoranda of a Residence at the Court of London, published in 1833. This

literary work represents the first detailed written account of American diplomacy.

Except for the first few months of the Adams administration, Rush held the post of Secretary of the Treasury until Jackson assumed the presidency in March of 1829. Rush had strong views concerning his responsibilities as Secretary of the Treasury. He believed it was his obligation to express his view on current economic issues concerning the United States and to provide economic policy recommendations to the President and Congress. Rush clearly stated his view in a letter to Nicholas Biddle, regarding his preparation of the 1828 Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury: "But if these reports are to consist of nothing but an account current of the receipts of the year, set off in ruled lines and columns, any copying clerk in the department might annually save the secretary the trouble of drawing them up. "(McGrane 1919, p.55) In his reports to Congress, Rush addressed a number of important economic issues including industrial development, development of infrastructure, international trade, the money supply and banking - currency issues.

Rush greatly admired Alexander Hamilton. Hamilton's influence on Rush is reflected in Rush's praise of Hamilton in the 1828 report by the Secretary, "Such were the counsels of a departed statesman, whose name peculiarly lives in the records of this Department; who was first placed at its head, directing its operations with a forecast so luminous as still to throw a

guiding light over the path of his successors." (Rush 1828, p.445). Rush strongly supported Hamilton's "infant industry argument". Rush argued strongly for the protection of American manufacturers in his annual reports. Rush believed that growth in manufacturing was the key to the future prosperity of the nation: " ...since an intimate connection is believed to exist between the full encouragement and success of domestic manufactures, and the wealth, the power, and the happiness of the country." (Rush 1825, p.321). Rush quotes the famous French economist J.B. Say to add weight to his argument for protection: "...that hopeless, indeed, would be their situation, were France to adopt the system which recommends the purchase of manufactures from foreign countries, with the raw produce of domestic agriculture." (Rush 1825, p.324). In order to protect American manufacturers, Rush specifically recommended raising import duties on all foreign wool and woolen goods, fine cotton goods, bar iron, and hemp.

Rush, however, favored the lowering of duties on imports he believed were staples of American life and that did not compete directly with domestic producers. He recommended the lowering of duties on cocoa, tea, coffee, and wines for the benefit of the American consumer. Rush used two economic concepts in defense of his recommendation. First he believed that lowering the tariff on coffee, tea, and cocoa would increase consumption and therefore would increase the consumption of sugar, benefiting domestic sugar producers. Rush's argument obviously alluded to

the economic concept of complementary goods (Rush 1825, p.326). Second, he believed that lowering the tariff on tea could actually increase tariff revenue - an argument alluding to the economic concept of the price elasticity of demand and its relationship to total revenue (Rush 1827, p.409).

Rush used Europe as an example in his argument that government protection of manufacturing from foreign competition would not interfere with foreign commerce: "Nor has this policy been found to interfere with an abundant foreign commerce in the wealthiest and most industrious nations. It has, on the contrary, carried its bounds still further; since every nation, by its habits and position, will always command superior facilities for excelling in certain branches of labor and art, which it therefore chiefly cherishes, leaving to other nations the opportunity of excelling in other branches, or of running the career of beneficial rivalry in the same; by which system the artificial production of the world are augmented and improved..." (Rush 1825, p.324).

Rush believed it was the duty of the federal government to nurture economic development. He clearly states his view in his 1825 annual report: "...to augment the number and variety of occupations for its inhabitants; to hold out every degree of labor, and to every modification of skill, its appropriate object and inducement, these rank amongst the highest ends of legislation. To organize the whole labor of a country; to entice into the widest ranges its mechanical and intellectual

capacities, instead of suffering them to slumber; to call forth, wherever hidden, latent ingenuity, giving to effort activity, and to emulation ardor; to create employment for the greatest amount of numbers, by adapting it to the diversified faculties, propensities, and situations of men, so that every particle of ability, every shade of genius, may come into requisition, is, in other words, to lift up the condition of a country, to increase its fiscal energy, to multiply the means and sources of its opulence..." (Rush 1825, p.322). Rush continually supported government participation in the building of highways and canals.

Rush argued against excessive government land sales which he believed would disperse the country's population and thus hinder capital accumulation and reduce growth in the nation's manufacturing sector: "The Maxim is held to be a sound one, that the ratio of capital to population should, if possible, be kept on the increase. When this takes place, the demand and compensation for labor will be proportionable increased, and the condition of the most numerous classes of the community become improved. If the ratio of capital to population be diminished, a contrary state of things will be the result..." (Rush 1827, p.405). Rush argues that excessive land sells may increase the nation's population, however, the diffusion of the nation's population will retard capital creation due to the subsistence nature of new settlements. Within this argument he states that increased manufacturing, which is not present in new settlements, will increase the country's capital stock and will therefore

raise the productivity of labor. Rush was clearly concerned with the government's role in the macromanagement of the economy (Rush 1827, p.405).

Rush tempered his strong views on the government's role by promoting the virtues of competition and free markets in the expanding domestic economy. Rush believed that adhering to this principle would greatly benefit the country.

During his term as Treasury Secretary, Rush strongly supported the Second Bank of the United States. He believed in a sound banking system and that a stable and growing money supply was essential for continued American economic growth. In 1828, Rush contacted the president of the Second Bank of the United States, Nicholas Biddle, asking for his comments on the value of the Bank to the economy of the United States for his 1828 report to Congress. Rush's reports on the Bank's activities were glowing and regarded the Bank's services as indispensable with respect to the health and stability of the U.S. economy.

In the 1828 presidential election, Rush was Adams's running mate. They were soundly defeated by the Jackson ticket. After the election loss, Rush returned to his private law practice in Philadelphia. Rush in 1829, acting as the representative for the towns of Georgetown, D.C., Alexandria, Va, and the city of Washington, D.C., traveled to Holland and arranged for a loan of \$1,500,000.00; for the construction of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal. In January 1831, Rush wrote to Biddle and asked to be considered for the post of president of the Washington branch of

the Bank; however, Biddle was unable to grant Rush's request. Rush ran for the Senate in Pennsylvania's 1832 election and lost, ironically because of political forces loyal to the Second Bank of the United States in the Pennsylvania legislature. The senatorial election loss so embittered Rush that he joined the forces of President Jackson in opposition to the Bank. In 1834, he publicly attacked the Bank, calling for its abolishment. This reversal of support in the "Bank War" alienated many of Rush's old political friends including his old personal friend John Quincy Adams.

The political reversal by Rush on the issue of the Bank, however, did bear fruit. President Jackson appointed Rush to the committee assigned to reconcile a boundary dispute between Michigan and Ohio in 1835. Although the dispute was left unsettled, the committee was able to prevent the outbreak of hostilities. In July of 1836, President Jackson appointed Rush to act as the representative for the United States with regards to the James Smithson legacy dispute which was pending in the English chancery court. Rush handled the long and arduous court proceedings with great skill and returned to the United States in August of 1838 with the entire amount of the Smithson legacy, \$508,318.46. The Smithson legacy provided the initial endowment for the Smithsonian Institute. Rush played an important role in the establishment and unique mission of the Smithsonian Institute. There was strong support in Washington for using the Smithson legacy to fund a university or a library. Rush argued

that this use of the legacy would be contrary to Smithson's wishes because the United States was in fact the trustee of Smithson's legacy. Therefore, it was the moral obligation of the United States to follow the spirit of Smithson's will. Rush's view prevailed, but not without considerable delay and some difficulty. In 1846, Congress passed the necessary enactment. The first meeting of the Board of Regents took place on September 7, 1846, with Rush a member. Rush worked tirelessly for the institute and remained a member of the Board of Regents until his death.

In March of 1847, President James Polk appointed Rush as U.S. Minister to France where he served until 1849. During his stay in France, Rush was an eyewitness to the Revolution of 1848 that toppled the French monarchy. He handled the chaotic transfer of power with his usual tact and intelligence. Acting without instructions from the U.S. Government, but after careful study, Rush was of the first foreign ministers to recognize the new republic in 1848. He received subsequent praise in the U.S. press for his actions. In 1849, the Whig party regained power under President Fillmore who recalled Rush from his post in Paris.

Rush returned to the United States in 1851 and continued to take an interest in public affairs as a private citizen. He spent the latter years of his life either at Sydenham, his country home or at his home in Philadelphia. Rush again turned his attention and talents to literary pursuits, writing

Washington in Domestic Life (1857), which consisted of personal letters from Washington to his private secretary, Col. Tobias Lear, and personal recollections of his life in Washington. His next and last literary project was Occasional Productions, Political, Diplomatic, and Miscellaneous, including a Glance at the Court and Government of Louis Philippe, and the French Revolution of 1848, published by his sons in 1860.

Rush's wife Catherine died at their country home on March 24, 1854, and was buried in his family vault at North Laurel Hill Cemetery. Richard Rush died on July 30, 1859, at his Philadelphia home and was laid to rest next to his beloved wife.

The testimonial to Richard Rush quoted at the beginning of this essay, in this writer's view, was accurate. Rush was a man of intellect and integrity, who believed in his country and worked for the betterment of his countrymen. Rush's economic insight and ability to formulate policy recommendations as Secretary of the Treasury were quite remarkable for one whose formal training was in law. Richard Rush was a great American living in an era that resonates with the names of great Americans. His name and record, though less familiar, deserves similar honor.

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